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1       **MUSCLE PAIN FROM AN INTRAMUSCULAR INJECTION OF HYPERTONIC**  
2               **SALINE INCREASES VARIABILITY IN KNEE EXTENSOR TORQUE**  
3                               **REPRODUCTION**

4  
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6  
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16       acquisition. SAS, DM, SLW, and ARM were responsible for data analysis and interpretation.  
17       SAS was responsible for drafting the manuscript. SAS, DM, SLW and ARM were  
18       responsible for critically revising and editing intellectual content.

19  
20       **Running head:** Muscle pain increases variability in torque reproduction

21  
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26 **ABSTRACT**

27 **Purpose:** The intensity of exercise-induced pain (EIP) reflects the metabolic environment in  
28 the exercising muscle, so during endurance exercise this may inform the intelligent regulation  
29 of work rate. Conversely, the acute debilitating effects of EIP on motor unit recruitment could  
30 impair the estimation of force produced by the muscle and impair judgement of current  
31 exercise intensity. This study investigated whether muscle pain that feels like EIP,  
32 administered via intramuscular injection of hypertonic saline, interferes with the ability to  
33 accurately reproduce torque in a muscle group relevant to locomotive exercise. **Methods:** On  
34 separate days, fourteen participants completed an isometric torque reproduction task of the  
35 knee extensors. Participants were required to produce torque at 15 and 20% maximal  
36 voluntary torque (MVIT), without visual feedback before (Baseline), during (Pain/No Pain),  
37 and after (Recovery) an injection of 0.9% isotonic saline (Control) or 5.8% hypertonic saline  
38 (Experimental) into the vastus lateralis of the right leg. **Results:** An elevated reported  
39 intensity of pain, and a significantly increased variance in mean contraction torque at both  
40 15% ( $P=0.049$ ) and 20% ( $P=0.002$ ) MVIT was observed in the Experimental compared to the  
41 Control condition. Both 15 and 20% target torques were performed at a similar pain intensity  
42 in the Experimental condition (15% MVIT,  $4.2 \pm 1.9$ ; 20% MVIT,  $4.5 \pm 2.2$ ;  $P>0.05$ ).  
43 **Conclusion:** These findings demonstrate that the increased muscle pain from the injection of  
44 hypertonic saline impeded accurate reproduction of knee extensor torque. These findings  
45 have implications for the detrimental impact of EIP on exercise regulation and endurance  
46 performance.

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51 **New & Noteworthy**

52 We provide novel data demonstrating that the presence of muscle pain interferes with  
53 estimations of torque produced by the knee extensors, which could impair judgement of  
54 work-rate during endurance exercise. The novelty of our study is in the application of the  
55 hypertonic saline experimental model into a quadriceps muscle during short, submaximal  
56 isometric contractions at an intensity that provides a more translatable assessment of the  
57 impact of exercise-induced pain on work-rate regulation during whole-body exercise.

58

59 **Key words:** Nociception, Exercise Regulation, Proprioception, Effort perception, Pain

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76 **INTRODUCTION**

77 Exercise-induced pain (EIP) increases linearly with exercise intensity and duration (9), and  
78 has been suggested to provide useful sensory feedback about the relative strain of exercising  
79 muscles (7, 27, 31). During intense and fatiguing muscle contractions, nociceptors of Group  
80 III and IV muscle afferents become sensitised and activated by an accumulation of  
81 metabolites which induce the perception of EIP, but are also implicated in peripheral fatigue  
82 and the description of its perception (31, 38). Resultantly, EIP is often associated with other  
83 physiological and psychological factors of fatigue, and has been suggested to independently  
84 exacerbate or contribute to the development of fatigue (27). A change in muscle torque  
85 complexity, which is suggested to reflect the adaptability of the neuromuscular system and is  
86 reduced during fatiguing maximal and submaximal isometric contractions (34), could provide  
87 a non-invasive method to evaluate the fatiguing effect of EIP.

88

89 During whole-body exercise, sensations of EIP may facilitate conscious control of  
90 homeostatic disturbance during exercise by enabling the intelligent regulation of available  
91 energetic resources (i.e. pacing) (12, 27, 54). However, the relationship between EIP and  
92 fatigue is likely more complex since it also causes various acute debilitating effects  
93 associated with motor unit recruitment (17) and, as a protective mechanism, restricts  
94 movement to reduce pain. Consequentially, whilst EIP may provide insight about the  
95 metabolic environment in the exercising muscle, these potentially detrimental adaptations  
96 may reduce the accuracy of estimations of work done and/or force applied by the muscle,  
97 which could impair pacing decisions during whole-body exercise.

98

99 Suppressing the unpleasant sensations associated with intense exercise may allow a higher  
100 exercise-intensity to be tolerated and sustained (28), however near complete removal of this

101 information via spinal afferent blockade appears to impair the exerciser's ability to select and  
102 maintain a physiologically optimal work rate (3). Spinal blockade studies show the  
103 importance of Group III and IV afferents to the performance of whole-body exercise (2, 3)  
104 but reveal less about the parallel effects of nociception and perceived pain on other systems  
105 such as cardiovascular control.

106

107 Intramuscular hypertonic saline injection produces a muscle pain that feels like the naturally  
108 occurring EIP experienced during intense exercise (16, 50), and is therefore a useful method  
109 to investigate how EIP affects self-regulation of exercise intensity. This technique has  
110 previously been used in contralateral limb-matching tasks to assess the impact of tonic  
111 muscle pain on the judgement of torque in small muscle groups (40, 41, 57). In these studies,  
112 increased pain impeded the ability to accurately match torque, with pain intensity and degree  
113 of error correlating such that participants consistently overestimated the force generated by  
114 the painful muscle.

115

116 This experimental approach could, however, be confounded by potential differences between  
117 the contralateral limbs (1, 36). To provide a more translatable assessment of the impact of  
118 EIP on whole-body exercise, the relationship between muscle pain and the reproduction of  
119 isometric torque production should be evaluated in the larger muscle groups of the lower limb  
120 such as the knee extensors, which have an important and fundamental role in the generation  
121 of force during locomotion and exercise.

122

123 As such, the aim of the present study was to ascertain whether experimentally induced  
124 muscle pain in the vastus lateralis (VL) using an intramuscular injection of hypertonic saline  
125 would affect the ability to accurately gauge the torque produced by the knee extensor muscles

126 in a single-limb isometric torque reproduction task. We tested the hypothesis that  
127 experimental muscle pain in the VL reduces torque reproduction accuracy (as quantified by  
128 the variance in mismatch between target and actual torque) of low intensity isometric  
129 contractions when compared to a placebo control condition.

130

## 131 **METHODS**

### 132 *Ethical Approval*

133 All procedures and protocols were approved by the School of Sport and Exercises (University  
134 of Kent) Research Ethics Advisory Group (Prop 140\_2016\_17) in conformity with the  
135 Declaration of Helsinki, and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. All  
136 participants were informed of the study experimental procedures, and written informed  
137 consent was obtained to confirm participation.

138

### 139 *Participants*

140 Fourteen healthy and recreationally active participants (13 male, 1 female; mean  $\pm$  SD: age,  
141  $25.3 \pm 4.5$  years; height  $1.78 \pm 0.1$  m; body mass  $73.9 \pm 12.3$  kg; physical activity  $5.6 \pm 2.2$   
142 hours per week) volunteered to participate in the present study. Assuming a statistical power  
143 of 0.8 at an alpha level of 0.05, the sample size was estimated using G\*Power software (13)  
144 based on the effect size reported in a similar study in our laboratory using hypertonic saline  
145 injections (50). All participants attended each visit in a similar psychological state as assessed  
146 by the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (56), which was completed at the  
147 start of each visit.

148

149 Before each visit, participants were instructed to refrain from vigorous exercise (24 h) and  
150 abstain from the consumption of alcohol (48 h), analgesics (6 h) and caffeine (8 h).

151 Participants with existing knee pain, cardiorespiratory disease, neurological disorders, blood  
152 borne viruses, sore deep tissues, phobia to needles and any allergy were excluded from the  
153 study.

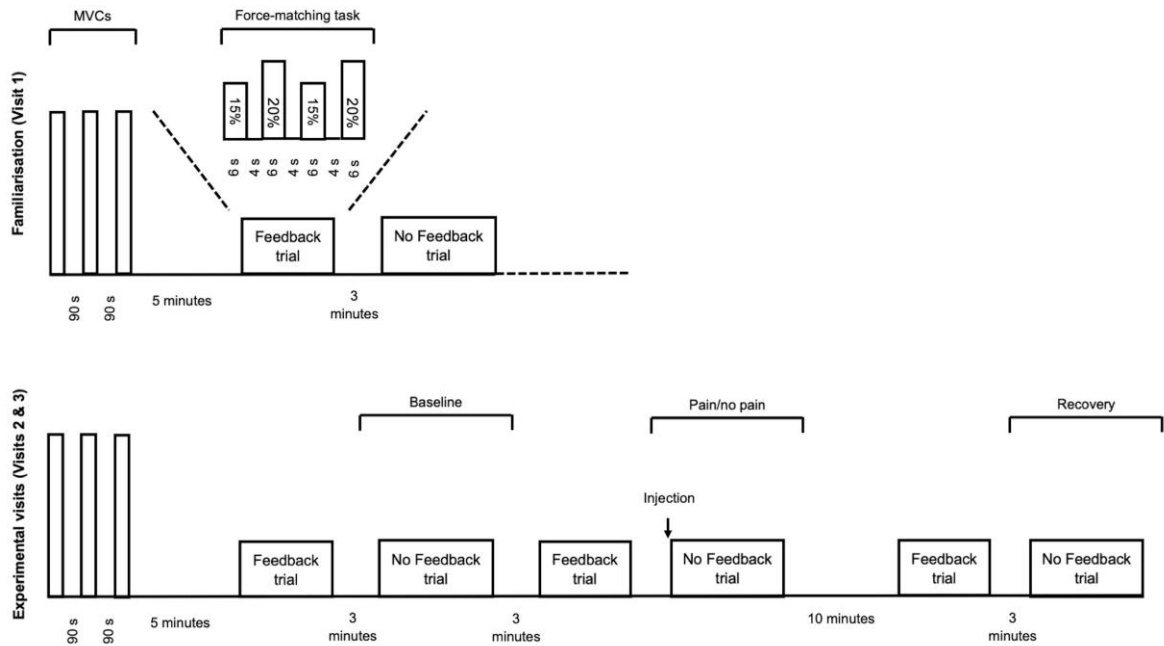
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### 155 *Experimental design*

156 In a two-way repeated-measures experimental design, participants performed an isometric  
157 torque matching and reproduction task with either pain (a single intramuscular injection of  
158 hypertonic saline) or a placebo control (a single intramuscular injection of isotonic saline)  
159 (condition factor). Participants attended a familiarisation session, and then completed the  
160 experimental conditions in a randomised and counterbalanced order, with each visit separated  
161 by a minimum of seven days. During the task participants attempted to produce torque at two  
162 set targets without the aid of real-time visual feedback before (Baseline), during (Pain/No  
163 Pain), and after (Recovery) the induction of pain and no pain (time factor). Measures of  
164 torque, rating of perceived effort (RPE), surface electromyography (sEMG) and heart rate  
165 (HR) were taken during each contraction. Pain intensity was recorded continuously using an  
166 electronic visual analogue scale (VAS) and pain quality through the completion of a McGill  
167 Pain Questionnaire (MPQ). A schematic of the experimental design and protocol is outlined  
168 in Figure 1.

169





170

171 **Fig 1.** Schematic overview of the experimental design and procedures. MVICs: maximal  
 172 voluntary contractions

173

174

175 ***Experimental Procedures***

176 *Torque matching and reproduction task*

177 All visits were performed seated on an isokinetic dynamometer (Cybex HUMAC Norm  
 178 isokinetic dynamometer; CSMi, Soughton, MA, USA) set up for the right leg, with the knee  
 179 set at an angle of 75° of flexion (0° = full extension of the knee), and a hip angle of 90°.  
 180 Torque matching and reproduction for knee extension were determined at isometric  
 181 contractions of 15% and 20% maximal voluntary isometric torque (MVIT). These values  
 182 were selected based on the percentage of MVIT utilised during maximal (100% maximal  
 183 oxygen uptake; VO<sub>2MAX</sub>) and submaximal (70% VO<sub>2MAX</sub>) cycling exercise performed at a  
 184 pedal rate between 60-80 revolutions per minute (24). At the start of each visit, participants  
 185 completed 3×3 s maximum voluntary isometric contractions (MVICs) separated by 90 s rest,  
 186 with the greatest instantaneous value taken as MVIT. If the MVIT of consecutive MVICs

187 were not within 5% of each other, additional MVICs were performed until this criteria was  
188 achieved.

189

190 Participants attempted the target torques in a trial with real-time torque-production visual  
191 feedback ('Feedback Trial') and a trial without visual feedback ('No Feedback Trial').

192 During the Feedback Trials, target torques (15% and 20% MVIT) were presented with actual  
193 torque produced via a computer display. Participants were instructed to remember muscular  
194 sensations experienced during each target torque and use these to reproduce the same torque  
195 in the subsequent No Feedback Trial (7). All Feedback and No Feedback trials were  
196 separated by a 3-minute period of rest.

197

198 For each trial, participants performed four 6 s contractions separated by 4 s of rest in a  
199 randomised counter-balanced order, which provided two attempts at both target torques (i.e.  
200 2×15% MVIT, 2×20% MVIT). During each contraction, participants were instructed to try  
201 and match the target torque within the first 2 s, and then maintain it for a further 4 s.

202

### 203 *Intramuscular injection procedure*

204 A single bolus of 1.0 mL hypertonic saline (5.8%) was manually injected into the middle  
205 third of the VL of the right leg over a 20 s window (10 s infusion period). The injection was  
206 performed using a 3 mL Luer-Lok syringe connected to a 25 G × 38 mm SurGuard2  
207 disposable stainless needle (Terumo, Japan). In the control condition, a single bolus of 1.0  
208 mL isotonic saline (0.9%) was injected.

209

210

211

212 *Visit 1 – Familiarisation*

213 Participant anthropometric and descriptive measures of age, height, body mass, and hours of  
214 physical activity engaged in per week were recorded. Participants were then familiarised with  
215 the RPE and pain scales (8), as well as the performance of MVICs, and the Feedback/No  
216 Feedback Trials. Five minutes after the completion of the final MVIC, participants performed  
217 an initial Feedback Trial followed by a No Feedback Trial. Verbal confirmation of the actual  
218 torque produced in each contraction was given after the completion of the trial. All four  
219 contractions in the No Feedback Trial were required to be within 10% of target torque, with  
220 further No Feedback Trials completed until this was satisfied. The visit concluded upon the  
221 successful completion of a No Feedback Trial or following ten unsuccessful trials.

222

223 *Visits 2 & 3 – Experimental visits*

224 All participants completed a Control (isotonic saline) and an Experimental (hypertonic saline)  
225 condition in a randomised and counterbalanced order. In each condition, five-minutes after  
226 the completion of the MVICs, participants completed six trials (Feedback, No Feedback,  
227 Feedback, No Feedback, Feedback, No Feedback). Prior to the second No Feedback Trial,  
228 participants received an intramuscular injection of either isotonic (Control) or hypertonic  
229 saline (Experimental), with the No Feedback Trial beginning 20 s after the removal of the  
230 needle. This ensured that the 15% and 20% MVIT contractions in this No Feedback Trial  
231 were performed with a “moderate” to “strong” muscle pain intensity elicited from the painful  
232 hypertonic saline infusion. Ten minutes after the completion of this second No Feedback  
233 Trial, the final Feedback and No Feedback (Recovery) Trials were performed.

234

235

236

237 ***Perceptual and psychological measurements***

238 At the start of each visit participants rated the expected pain (0 = “no pain” to 10 = “worst  
239 possible pain”) and their confidence to cope with it (0 = “not confident at all” to 10 =  
240 “completely confident”). Muscle pain was evaluated by intensity and quality. Participants  
241 rated pain intensity on a moment-to-moment basis using an electronic VAS ranging from 0  
242 (“no pain”) to 10 (“extremely intense pain”). Participants were instructed to anchor the scale  
243 to previous experiences of EIP (4). The device recorded the reported pain value every 5 s,  
244 providing measures of pain for each individual contraction. In addition, onset pain intensity  
245 (VAS onset), maximal pain intensity (VAS peak), time to maximal intensity (VAS time to  
246 peak; from the commencement of sampling), mean pain intensity (VAS mean) and duration  
247 of pain (VAS duration; from VAS onset until the state of “no pain”) were also calculated  
248 using data from the electronic VAS.

249

250 After the second No Feedback Trial, when pain had subsided, Total Pain Rating Index and  
251 Subclass Rating Index was calculated using a 78 item MPQ (29), with overall quality of pain  
252 described by descriptors (sensory, affective, evaluative and miscellaneous) chosen by more  
253 than one-third of participants. Upon the completion of each trial, participants provided a RPE,  
254 defined as the effort to drive the limb (32), of both target torques using the 15-point Borg (6-  
255 20) scale (6).

256

257 ***Physiological measurements***

258 Heart rate (HR) was recorded upon the completion of each individual contraction, and muscle  
259 electrical activity was continuously recorded using surface electromyography (sEMG). sEMG  
260 was attained through square surface electrodes (Ag/AgCl, 32 × 32 mm; Nessler  
261 Medizintechnik, Innsbruck, Austria) mounted in a bipolar set-up, and placed on the muscle

262 belly of the VL, vastus medialis (VM) and rectus femoris (RF). For each muscle a reference  
263 electrode was placed on the patella. Prior to application of the electrodes, the skin was shaven  
264 and cleansed with an alcohol swab. The electrical signal was sampled at 1000 Hz (Biopac  
265 MP150, Biopac Systems Inc., California, USA).

266

### 267 *Data analysis*

268 The sEMG and torque data (for analysis of torque output complexity) were analysed using  
269 custom code written in MATLAB 2018a (The MathWorks, Massachusetts, USA).

270

### 271 *Torque and error*

272 Torque was recorded through Spike2 software (Cambridge Electronics Design (CED),  
273 Cambridge, UK). For each 6 s contraction, the torque produced over the last 4 s was  
274 averaged. The average of the actual torque produced for each 15% and 20% target was used  
275 to define the error in participant torque reproduction. Error was defined as the unidirectional  
276 difference between the required target torque and the actual torque produced, and expressed  
277 as a percentage of MVIT (i.e. actual torque of 17.5% MVIT for the 15% MVIT target would  
278 be equal to an error of 2.5% MVIT). All values of error are presented as positive integers  
279 regardless of whether the participant over- or undershot the target torque. The pain on the  
280 VAS reported for the corresponding contractions were also averaged for the two attempts at  
281 each target torque to provide a mean VAS value for each target torque.

282

### 283 *Surface electromyography (sEMG)*

284 To create a linear envelope representation of the data, rectified absolute values of the raw  
285 sEMG signals were two-pass zero-lag filtered using a fourth-order low-pass Butterworth  
286 filter, with a cut-off frequency of 5 Hz. The amplitude for the VL, RF and VM were averaged

287 over the final 4 s period of each 6 s contraction. These values were normalised to the  
288 maximum amplitude of the prior MVICs (% MVIC). For each trial, the sEMG activity was  
289 averaged for the two contractions performed at each target torque.

290

### 291 *Torque complexity*

292 The complexity and regularity of the torque output was estimated through the use of  
293 approximate entropy (ApEn) and sample entropy (SampEn) (37, 43). When applied to  
294 physiological time-series data, ApEn is an index that quantifies the predictability or  
295 probability of the subsequent values based on prior values, whilst SampEn provides the same  
296 output but excludes self-matches (37, 43). Both ApEn and SampEn are defined by a value  
297 between 0 ('high regularity, low complexity') and 2 ('low regularity, high complexity'). A  
298 detailed guide to the algorithms for the calculation of ApEn are evidenced in the appendix of  
299 Slifkin and Newell (48), whilst SampEn was calculated using the parameters outlined by  
300 Pethick and colleagues (34).

301

### 302 *Statistical analysis*

303 To compare reproduction error between the Control and Experimental conditions at the three  
304 time-points (Baseline, Pain/No Pain, and Recovery), a Levene's test was used to determine  
305 equality of variance for each normalised target torque (15% and 20% MVIT). Changes in  
306 HR, RPE, sEMG activity and complexity were evaluated using two-way Analysis of variance  
307 (ANOVA) with treatment factor with two fixed levels (Control, Experimental) and a repeated  
308 measures Time factor with two time-points (Baseline, Pain/No Pain). A two-way ANOVA  
309 with a treatment factor with two fixed levels (No Feedback, Feedback) and a repeated  
310 measures Time factor with two time-points (Baseline, Pain/No Pain) was also implemented to  
311 evaluate changes in complexity. When an interaction effect was observed, follow-up paired

312 samples t-tests were used to assess differences between conditions. Paired samples t-tests  
313 were also implemented to evaluate the differences between conditions for pain expectation  
314 and confidence, VAS scores, pre-test PANAS, and the change in torque produced in Baseline  
315 compared to the Pain/No Pain time-point. A Pearson Bivariate correlation was used to  
316 evaluate the correlation between torque error and VAS score reported during the Pain/No  
317 Pain contractions. Cohen's guidelines of 0.1 (small), 0.3 (medium) and greater than or equal  
318 to 0.5 (large) were used to indicate the strength of correlation.

319

320 All data was checked for the standard assumptions associated with the performance of the  
321 above statistical tests prior to analysis. Data that did not satisfy the Shapiro-Wilk test of  
322 normality ( $P < 0.05$ ) were logarithmically transformed. Results are presented as mean  $\pm$   
323 standard deviation (SD). Cohen's  $d$  and partial eta square ( $\eta_p^2$ ) values are reported as  
324 measures of effect size. Statistical significance was accepted at an alpha level of  $P < 0.05$ . All  
325 statistical analysis were completed using SPSS Statistics v25.0 (SPSS, IBM, New York,  
326 USA).

327

## 328 **RESULTS**

### 329 *Experimental muscle pain*

330 As shown in Table 1, paired samples t-tests revealed a significant difference in VAS pain  
331 data between the Control and Experimental conditions. The pain experienced in Experimental  
332 was significantly greater in terms of the onset VAS pain reported, with a significantly longer  
333 time to peak, yet greater peak VAS pain compared to Control. The reported VAS pain in  
334 Experimental was also longer in duration, inducing a significantly greater mean VAS pain,  
335 equivalent to a "moderate" to "somewhat strong" muscle pain, and therefore producing a  
336 greater overall VAS pain area than Control.

337

338 The pain experienced in Experimental was predominantly described in the sensory and  
339 evaluative dimensions of pain as “aching” (50% of participants), “throbbing” (43% of  
340 participants), “shooting” (36% of participants), “cramping” (36% of participants), “annoying”  
341 (36% of participants). This produced a mean Total Pain Index of  $14 \pm 8$ , with an overall  
342 Present Pain Intensity of  $2.1 \pm 0.7$  (“discomforting”).

343

344 During the Pain/No Pain trial, a paired samples t-test revealed no significant difference ( $t_{13}=-$   
345  $0.9, P=0.366, CI_{95} -0.9, 0.3, d=0.1$ ) in mean VAS between contractions performed at 15%  
346 MVIT ( $4.2 \pm 1.9$ ) and 20% MVIT ( $4.5 \pm 2.2$ ) in the Experimental condition. Each of the two  
347 target torques in the Pain/No Pain trial was therefore completed at a similar intensity of pain  
348 (Fig 2b. and Fig 3b.).

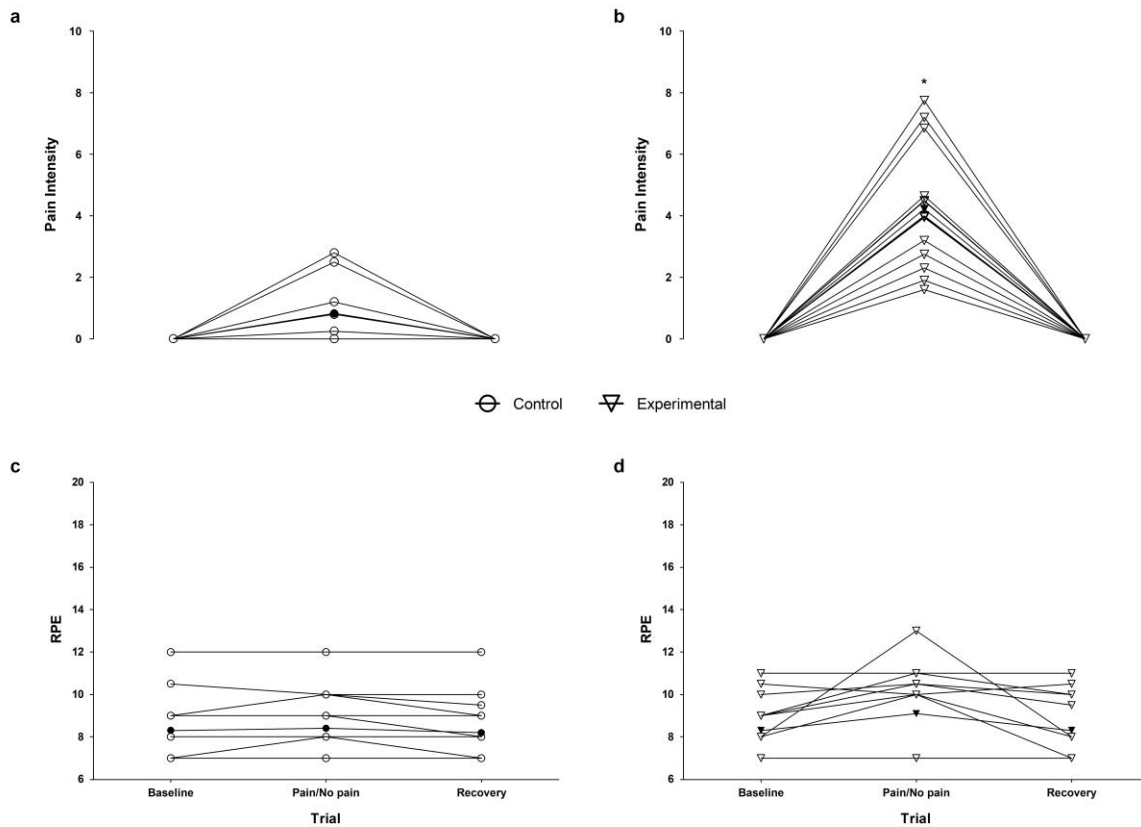
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350 **Table 1.** Summary VAS pain data across the entire duration of the Control and Experimental  
351 conditions

	Control	Experimental	<i>P</i>
VAS mean	$0.8 \pm 1.0$	$3.1 \pm 1.0^{**}$	<0.001
VAS peak	$1.6 \pm 2.2$	$5.7 \pm 1.7^{**}$	<0.001
VAS onset	$0.5 \pm 0.8$	$1.7 \pm 1.3^*$	0.012
VAS time to peak (s)	$41 \pm 29$	$71 \pm 24^*$	0.020
VAS duration (s)	$55 \pm 56$	$233 \pm 60^{**}$	<0.001
VAS area	$86.3 \pm 115.4$	$759.8 \pm 325.6^{**}$	<0.001

352 Values are means  $\pm$  SD. **\*\***Significant difference between Control and Experimental ( $P <$   
353  $0.001$ ). **\***Significant difference between Control and Experimental ( $P < 0.05$ ). VAS scale 0  
354 (no pain) to 10 (extremely intense pain)





356

357 **Fig 2.** Individual (*open symbol*) and group mean (*filled symbol*) perceptual differences  
 358 between conditions (Control and Experimental) at Baseline, Pain/No Pain and Recovery  
 359 time-points at a target torque of 15% MVIT. Differences in pain intensity after injection of  
 360 isotonic saline (Control, *a*) and hypertonic saline (Experimental, *b*). Differences in RPE in  
 361 Control (*c*) and Experimental (*d*) conditions. \*Significantly greater where hypertonic saline  
 362 was injected.

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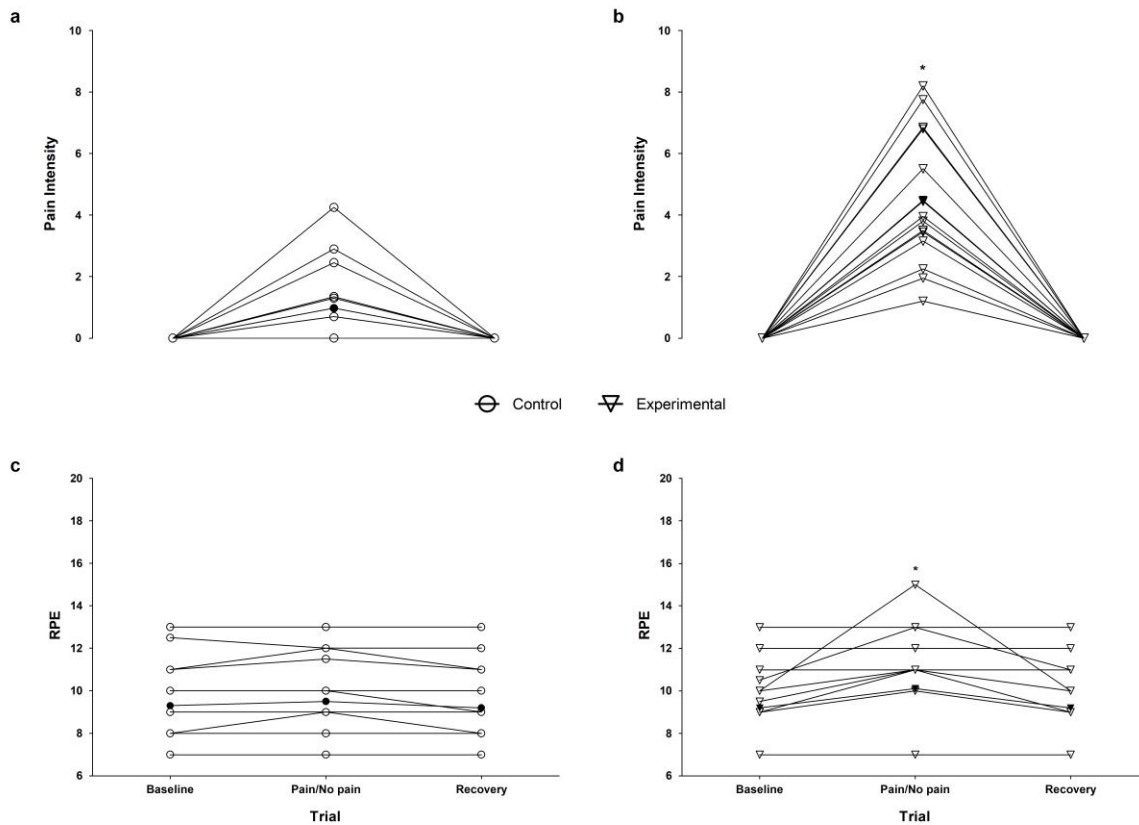
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371 **Fig 3.** Individual (*open symbol*) and group mean (*filled symbol*) perceptual differences  
 372 between conditions (Control and Experimental) at Baseline, Pain/No Pain and Recovery  
 373 time-points at a target torque of 20% MVIT. Differences in pain intensity after injection of  
 374 isotonic saline (Control, *a*) and hypertonic saline (Experimental, *b*). Differences in RPE in  
 375 Control (*c*) and Experimental (*d*) conditions. \*Significantly greater where hypertonic saline  
 376 was injected

377

378

379 Paired samples *t* tests revealed no significant difference ( $t_{13}=-1.8$ ,  $P=0.096$ ,  $CI_{95} -2.08, 0.19$ ,  
 380  $d=0.5$ ) in expectations of pain between the Control ( $4.5 \pm 2.1$ ) and Experimental ( $5.4 \pm 1.8$ )  
 381 conditions, with no significant differences in the confidence to cope with the expected pain

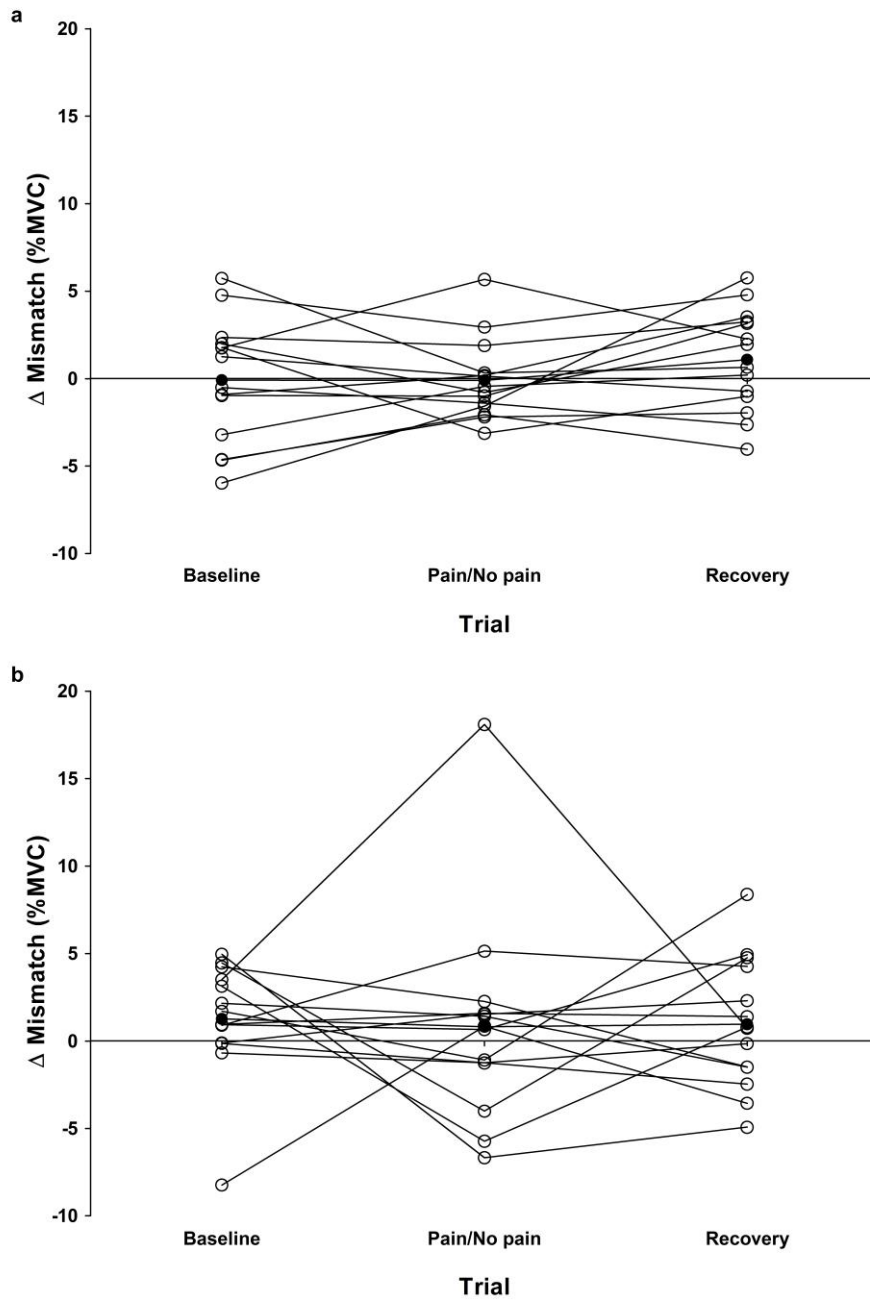
382 ( $t_{13}=0.2$ ,  $P=0.818$ ,  $CI_{95}$  -0.29, 0.37,  $d=0.1$ ) between Control ( $9.5 \pm 1.0$ ) and Experimental ( $9.4$   
383  $\pm 1.0$ ).

384

#### 385 *Comparisons of torque production accuracy*

386 In the presence of greater levels of pain, participants demonstrated an increased variability in  
387 their ability to reproduce target torque without visual feedback. However, once the pain had  
388 subsided, participants were able to produce the target torque with the same accuracy as  
389 Baseline. This is demonstrated by the Levene test for equality of variance, which revealed a  
390 significant difference in the variance of mean contraction torque in the Pain/No Pain trial  
391 between the Experimental and Control conditions at both 15% MVIT ( $F_{1,26}=4.3$ ,  $P=0.049$ ,  
392  $d=0.6$ ) and 20% MVIT ( $F_{1,26}=12.0$ ,  $P=0.002$ ,  $d=1.0$ ), as shown in Figures 4 and 5. There was  
393 no correlation between Pain/No Pain error and the pain intensity reported during the  
394 contractions (15% MVIT;  $r= -0.053$ ,  $P=0.858$ , 20% MVIT;  $r=0.172$ ,  $P=0.557$ ). In addition,  
395 there was no significant difference in variance between conditions at the Baseline (15%  
396 MVIT;  $F_{1,26}=0.2$ ,  $P=0.612$ ,  $d=0.1$ , 20% MVIT;  $F_{1,26}=2.1$ ,  $P=0.161$ ,  $d=0.2$ ) and Recovery  
397 (15% MVIT;  $F_{1,26}=1.8$ ,  $P=0.195$ ,  $d=0.2$ , 20% MVIT;  $F_{1,26}=3.9$ ,  $P=0.058$ ,  $d=0.4$ ) time-points.

398



399

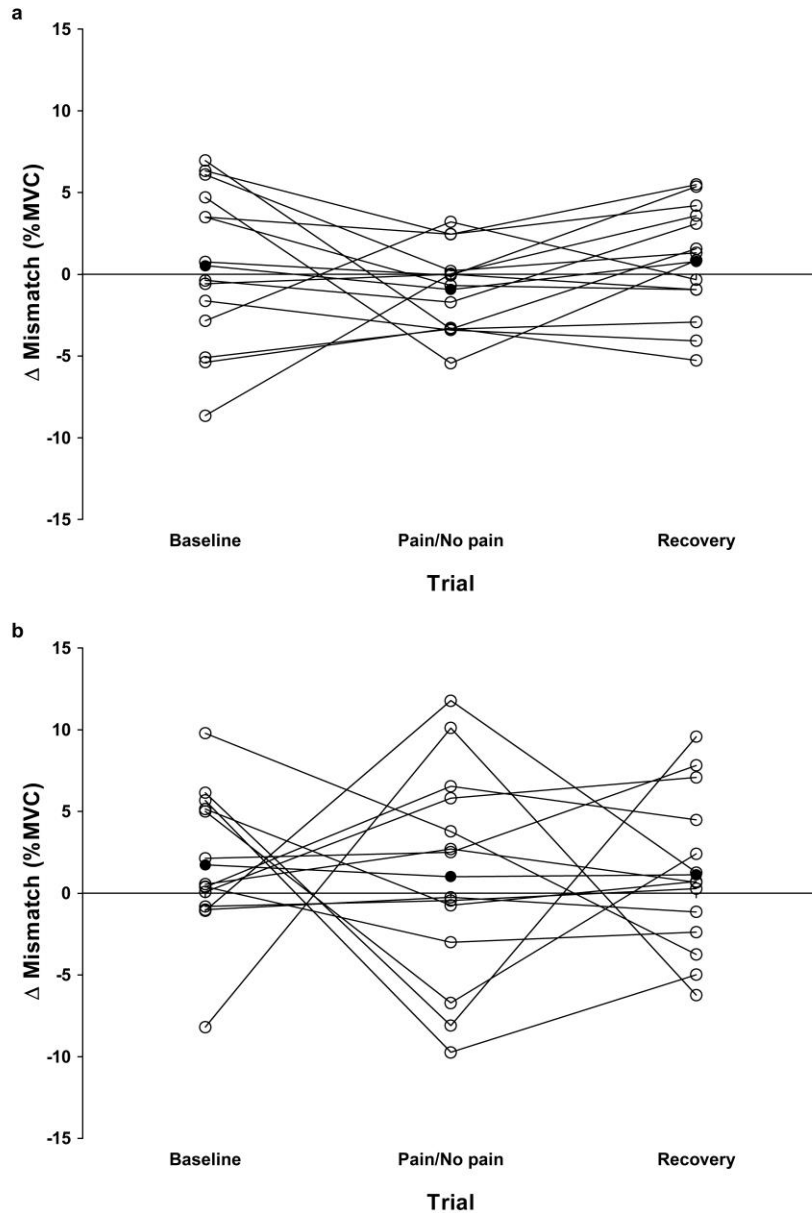
400 **Fig 4.** Individual (*open circle*) and group mean (*filled circle*) torque reproduction error at a  
 401 target torque of 15% MVIT before (Baseline), during (Pain/No Pain) and after (Recovery)  
 402 injection of isotonic saline (Control, *a*) or hypertonic saline (Experimental, *b*).

403

404

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407

408 **Fig 5.** Individual (*open circle*) and group mean (*filled circle*) torque reproduction error at a  
 409 target torque of 20% MVIT before (Baseline), during (Pain/No Pain) and after (Recovery)  
 410 injection of isotonic saline (Control, *a*) or hypertonic saline (Experimental, *b*).

411

412

413 A paired samples t-test found no significant difference in the change in torque mismatch  
 414 between Baseline and Pain/No Pain trials at 15% MVIT ( $t_{13}=-1.5$ ,  $P=0.169$ ,  $CI_{95} -1.1, 0.2$ ,  
 415  $d=0.5$ ) when comparing the Control ( $2.5 \pm 1.7$  %MVIT) and Experimental ( $4.8 \pm 4.8$

416 %MVIT) conditions. Furthermore, the paired samples t-test highlighted no significant  
417 difference in the same change in torque mismatch between Control ( $4.2 \pm 3.5$  %MVIT) and  
418 Experimental ( $7.4 \pm 6.0$  %MVIT) when contractions were performed at 20% MVIT ( $t_{13}=-1.3$ ,  
419  $P=0.235$ ,  $CI_{95}$  -1.6, 0.4,  $d=0.4$ ). This suggests that the target torque absolute error in the  
420 ‘Pain/No Pain’ was similar to the error made at Baseline despite the change in pain  
421 experienced.

422

### 423 *Rating of perceived effort*

424 It was apparent that the effort experienced during the contraction was greater in the presence  
425 of increased pain, when performed at 20% MVIT. The 2 x 2 (condition x trial) repeated  
426 measures ANOVA demonstrated a significant interaction effect at 20% MVIT for RPE over  
427 trials between conditions ( $F_{1,13}=6.0$ ,  $P=0.030$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.314$ ). Follow-up paired samples t-tests  
428 revealed a significantly greater RPE ( $t_{13}=-2.3$ ,  $P=0.038$ ,  $CI_{95}$  -1.31, -0.04,  $d=0.3$ ) in the  
429 Pain/No Pain trial in Experimental compared to Control. A significantly greater ( $t_{13}=-2.4$ ,  
430  $P=0.033$ ,  $CI_{95}$  0.1, 1.8,  $d=0.4$ ) RPE was also reported in the Experimental condition at the  
431 Pain/No Pain trial compared to the Baseline trial. No significant main effect of condition was  
432 observed at either 15 or 20% MVIT ( $P>0.05$ ). A significant effect of trial was reported at  
433 20% MVIT ( $F_{1,13}=5.2$ ,  $P=0.041$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.284$ ), but not at 15% MVIT ( $P>0.05$ ) (Figs. 2c., 2d.,  
434 3c. and 3d.). There was no interaction effect observed at 15% MVIT ( $P>0.05$ ).

435

### 436 *Surface electromyography (sEMG)*

437 Due to excessive noise in sEMG signal, two participants were removed from the dataset and  
438 analysis was performed on the remaining participants ( $n=12$ ). Despite a greater variance in  
439 mean contraction torque in the presence of muscle pain, there were no discernible alterations  
440 in activation of the agonist and synergist muscles. At 15 and 20% MVIT, the performance of

441 a 2 x 2 (condition x trial) repeated measures ANOVA demonstrated no significant main effect  
442 of condition or trial in either the VL, VM or RF ( $P>0.05$ ). The VL, VM or RF also  
443 demonstrated no significant interaction effect for sEMG activity over trial between conditions  
444 at both target torques ( $P>0.05$ ).

445

#### 446 *Torque complexity*

447 As shown in Table 2, the presence of visual feedback resulted in a more complex (less  
448 regular) torque signal (assessed by both ApEn and SampEn) than when torque was being  
449 reproduced (No Feedback Trials) ( $P<0.001$ ). No condition ( $P>0.05$ ) and no interaction  
450 effect was observed for either ApEn or SampEn ( $P>0.05$ ) at both target torques. At 15 and  
451 20% MVIT, the performance of a 2 x 2 (condition x trial) repeated measures ANOVA  
452 demonstrated no significant main effect of condition for either ApEn or SampEn, as well as  
453 no significant main effect of trial for either complexity statistic ( $P>0.05$ ). There was no  
454 interaction effect observed for either ApEn or SampEn ( $P>0.05$ ) at both target torques.

455

#### 456 *Heart rate (HR)*

457 The 2 x 2 (condition x trial) repeated measures ANOVA revealed no significant main effect  
458 of condition at 15 or 20% MVIT ( $P>0.05$ ). At 15% MVIT there was no significant main  
459 effect of trial ( $P>0.05$ ), however there was at 20% MVIT ( $F_{1,13}=5.2$ ,  $P=0.041$ ,  $\eta_p^2=0.284$ ). No  
460 significant interaction effect for HR and trial between conditions was observed at 15 or 20%  
461 MVIT ( $P>0.05$ ).

462

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465

466 **Table 2.** Torque complexity (ApEn) during Feedback and No Feedback trials at the Baseline  
 467 and Pain/No Pain time-points

Condition	Time-point	Trial	Target Torque				
			15% MVIT		20% MVIT		
			ApEn	SampEn	ApEn	SampEn	
Control	Baseline	Feedback	0.71 ± 0.25*	0.71 ± 0.29*	0.57 ± 0.22*	0.56 ± 0.27*	
		No Feedback	0.35 ± 0.17 *	0.32 ± 0.17*	0.31 ± 0.21*	0.29 ± 0.22*	
	Pain/No Pain	Feedback	0.73 ± 0.21*	0.72 ± 0.24*	0.60 ± 0.26*	0.61 ± 0.30*	
		No Feedback	0.35 ± 0.21*	0.32 ± 0.22*	0.28 ± 0.17*	0.26 ± 0.17*	
	Experimental	Baseline	Feedback	0.78 ± 0.24*	0.79 ± 0.30*	0.64 ± 0.21*	0.64 ± 0.25*
			No Feedback	0.29 ± 0.13*	0.26 ± 0.13*	0.27 ± 0.12*	0.24 ± 0.12*
Pain/No Pain		Feedback	0.74 ± 0.27*	0.75 ± 0.31*	0.68 ± 0.23*	0.68 ± 0.28*	
		No Feedback	0.32 ± 0.19*	0.29 ± 0.19*	0.22 ± 0.11*	0.20 ± 0.10*	

468 Values are means ± SD. \* Significant difference between Feedback and No Feedback trial  
 469 within condition and time-point (P < 0.001).

470  
 471  
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 473



474 **DISCUSSION**

475 The present study demonstrates for the first time that the experience of muscle pain,  
476 administered by the intramuscular injection of hypertonic saline into the VL, resulted in a  
477 greater variance in the mean contraction torque at both 15 and 20% MVIT when compared to  
478 the injection of isotonic saline (a placebo control). The increased variance was paralleled by  
479 an elevated experience of pain at both contraction intensities, and a greater perceived effort  
480 when performed at 20% MVIT. Once the pain had subsided, accuracy of torque production  
481 returned to baseline levels. This study for the first time demonstrates that the presence of  
482 muscle pain (that feels like EIP) impedes the ability to accurately reproduce torque in the  
483 knee extensors. This important finding provides key experimental evidence for the  
484 deleterious implications of EIP on the ability to self-regulate exercise intensity.

485

486 *Effect of pain on isometric torque reproduction*

487

488 The purpose of the present study was to establish whether the presence of pain in a muscle  
489 with a major contributing role to force generation during both dynamic contractions and  
490 whole-body exercise (i.e. the VL) has a debilitating effect on producing a given torque using  
491 the ipsilateral knee extensor muscle group. The primary finding from this study is that the  
492 mismatch between the actual torque produced and the target torque (when required to  
493 reproduce both 15 and 20% MVIT) was significantly more variable with pain, with no  
494 discernible direction of error (i.e. participants both under- and overshoot the target torque).  
495 Resultantly, this study is the first to demonstrate that the experimental induction of pain in a  
496 large locomotor muscle group impairs the judgement of torque during an isometric  
497 reproduction task performed at an intensity of relevance to endurance exercise performance.

498

499 The compromised ability to accurately reproduce torque during pain is in line with previous  
500 research that has implemented the hypertonic saline model in the elbow flexors to investigate  
501 the impact of pain on estimation error in a contralateral torque estimation task (40, 41, 57).  
502 However, this prior literature has consistently reported that participants specifically  
503 *overestimated* the torque that is produced in the painful muscle, and therefore produced less  
504 torque than required. In contrast with lack of direction in error reported in the present study,  
505 this observed disparity could be due to potential differences in the limb evaluated (e.g.  
506 contralateral or ipsilateral). Alternatively, as the knee extensor muscles respond differently to  
507 exercise-induced fatigue (55), the muscle group tested (elbow flexor vs. knee extensors)  
508 should also be considered.

509

#### 510 *Proposed mechanisms*

511 The presence of the hypertonic saline solution in addition to the short-duration muscle  
512 contraction creates a noxious environment within the skeletal musculature (31), which results  
513 in an alteration in activity of both ascending metaboreceptive and nociceptive group III and IV  
514 afferent fibers (18). In this noxious environment, there are several neuromuscular  
515 mechanisms that, when acting in singularity or in combination, may provide an explanation  
516 for the impaired reproduction of torque in the present study.

517

518 Convergent projection from group III and IV afferents on common interneurons from group  
519 Ib proprioceptive afferents (45) provide information on muscle force (15). As discussed by  
520 Salomoni and Graven-Nielsen (44), the large variance in the mean contraction torque in the  
521 Experimental condition could be a result of the spatial facilitation between these afferents  
522 interfering in the central interpretation of proprioceptive information essential for the  
523 accurate control of torque. A discrepancy between the centrally mediated judgement of

524 torque and the actual afferent feedback from the periphery could therefore have resulted in  
525 the torque reproduction error.

526

527 In addition, the projection of the group III and IV afferents have inhibitory effects on the  
528 central nervous system. The increased afferent feedback from the hypertonic saline may have  
529 limited motor cortical excitability, and reduced central motor drive and voluntary activation  
530 of the knee extensors (14, 19). In order to compensate for the hypertonic saline-induced  
531 impairment of motor cortex excitability, a greater effort is required to drive the limb to meet  
532 the required torque (30, 39). As an outcome reflected in the present study, this could provide  
533 a possible explanation for some of the differences in actual and perceived torque produced.  
534 The findings from Proske and colleagues (40) where the matching of torque through effort  
535 resulted in an overshoot of the target torque, are in support of this explanation.

536

537 Despite the observed impairment in torque-reproduction performance during pain, there was  
538 no change in the torque complexity of the knee extensors, or the level of muscle activity  
539 assessed by sEMG. The absence of alterations in sEMG is comparable with findings from the  
540 established literature into the implications of EIP on muscle activity during submaximal  
541 isometric contractions, where a lack of marked changes in sEMG signal are also observed  
542 (16, 44, 46). Combined, these observations contradict the underpinning theory of the ‘Pain  
543 Adaptation Model’ (25) where it is predicted that the presence of pain has a reliable  
544 inhibitory influence on agonist muscles, whilst simultaneously activating the antagonists.  
545 Instead, the observations of the present study could, with caution, be in-line with the “moving  
546 differently in pain” model proposed by Hodges and Tucker (17). This theory postulates that  
547 pain initiates a non-uniform effect across the motor neurone pool, causing a redistribution of  
548 activity between and within muscles to provide a key adaptive and protective function. Whilst

549 this alteration has the immediate benefit of minimising the pain experienced and preventing  
550 further injury or damage to the area in pain during muscular contraction, this change to a  
551 “sub-optimal” movement strategy could have consequences for the efficiency of task  
552 performance (17, 53). Detection of these adaptations would however require the use of fine-  
553 wire electrodes (52) or high density sEMG, as a combination of changes in order of motor  
554 unit activation or synchronisation can occur without alteration in amplitude of gross sEMG  
555 (51).

556

557 A loss of knee-extensor torque complexity during both prolonged maximal and submaximal  
558 contractions has been closely associated with fatigue (34, 35), and is suggested to have a  
559 detrimental impact on the performance of motor tasks in the lower limb (10). In the present  
560 study, the lack of change in torque complexity suggests that the acute pain from the  
561 hypertonic saline was unlikely to have independently caused neuromuscular fatigue. The  
562 increased variance in mean contraction torque is therefore unable to be explained by pain-  
563 induced mechanisms of fatigue during the short-duration and submaximal isometric  
564 contractions.

565

566 This finding is consistent with prior literature, where differences in torque complexity are not  
567 observed in the first few seconds of isometric muscle contraction despite the presence of pain  
568 (from an eccentric contraction muscle damage protocol) and the consequential impaired  
569 ability to perform a maximal voluntary contraction (33). As torque complexity progressively  
570 decreases over time during submaximal contractions until the point of task failure (34), if the  
571 torque reproduction task in the present study was performed over a longer duration, a pain-  
572 induced *acceleration* of exercise-induced fatigue (and therefore loss of torque complexity)  
573 would likely be observed in addition to the impaired the ability to accurately reproduce

574 torque. As such the findings of the present study reinforce the notion that acute, moderate  
575 muscle pain alone is not necessarily fatiguing, but may accelerate the development of fatigue  
576 during prolonged or exhaustive exercise (27, 50), or impair maximal voluntary contraction.

577

578 A further point of consideration is that in the absence of visual feedback, and sole reliance on  
579 afferent/efferent information and task memory, the ability to accurately reproduce torque  
580 depreciates (22) and that this is characteristically coupled with a lower complexity of the  
581 torque signal (indicative of a reduced adaptability in force control) (21, 49). This observation  
582 is replicated in the present study, and it is noteworthy that the values for ApEn and SampEn  
583 in the No Feedback conditions are similar to those shown at task failure in exhaustive  
584 exercise (34). Therefore, it is possible that the induction of muscle pain in the present study  
585 was not able to reduce the complexity of the torque signal beyond that already caused by the  
586 removal of visual feedback.

587

588 Alternatively, the compromised ability to accurately reproduce torque (despite no change in  
589 loss of torque complexity) could be due to the experience of pain preventing some attentional  
590 focus on the task (23), making the task more challenging. It is plausible that the elevated  
591 intensity of pain (induced by the injection of hypertonic saline), which was rated as  
592 “moderate” to “somewhat strong” in both target torques, provided a stimulus which was  
593 perceived as threatening. With some attentional resources focused on coping with the ‘threat’  
594 of the noxious stimuli, attention may have been directed away from the task, which could  
595 have resulted in a compromised accuracy of torque reproduction (11); a notion supported by  
596 evidence from previous experimental work (5, 26). However, in the current study, there was  
597 no relationship between pain intensity and error, which indicates that the sensation of pain  
598 alone was unlikely to have had a direct influence on task performance.

599

600 Overall, it is evident that the presence of pain interferes with proprioception during  
601 submaximal isometric contractions in the lower-limb. The design and findings of the present  
602 study therefore provide a key indication of the potential mechanism underpinning the  
603 detrimental effect of EIP on exercise intensity regulation and endurance performance. Some  
604 caution should however be taken when extrapolating these findings to whole-body exercise.  
605 In order to improve task relevance to whole-body locomotor exercise and further apply the  
606 findings of the present study, there is the need for the impact of this experimental model to be  
607 evaluated during isokinetic or dynamic muscular contractions performed at a varying or  
608 higher work rate.

609

#### 610 *Methodological considerations*

611 Whilst there is inconsistent evidence for sex-related differences in the pain intensity response  
612 to the hypertonic saline model (20, 42), the fluctuations in hormone concentration across the  
613 different menstrual cycle phases may cause differences in pain perception to experimental  
614 pain (47). It is acknowledged that the present study did not account for menstrual cycle  
615 phases of the female participant, and this is a limitation. It is also important to note that the  
616 short-duration and submaximal isometric contractions used in the current study were not  
617 fatiguing, and this limits the ability to examine the notion that pain accelerates the  
618 development of exercise-induced fatigue in addition to the impairment in accurate torque  
619 reproduction. To explore this in combination, future investigations should attempt to employ  
620 a similar study design examining torque reproduction ability in the presence of muscle pain  
621 during contractions performed at a greater exercise intensity, or over a longer duration.

622

#### 623 *Conclusion*

624 In conclusion, the injection of hypertonic saline into the VL during a torque reproduction task  
625 created muscle pain that resulted in an impaired ability to accurately produce a given  
626 submaximal target torque during a short, submaximal isometric contractions. The presence of  
627 pain was linked with a greater effort to drive the limb and meet the given target torque when  
628 attempting to contract at 20% MVIT, but not at 15% MVIT. The compromised ability to  
629 reproduce torque returned to baseline levels once pain had subsided. These findings have  
630 implications for the impact of EIP on self-selected work rate regulation during endurance  
631 exercise performance.

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